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ABSTRACT

This study explored the importance of the support component in induction programs to assist beginning teachers in the move through the stages of the socialization process. The study was a dimension of a larger comparative analysis of three exemplary induction programs. Exemplary programs were discovered by letters sent to leading induction researchers requesting recommendations. Program coordinators of nine of the identified programs completed interviews on program organization and demographics, program components, and program excellence criteria. Three university/school district collaborative programs were selected and visited. Mentors, beginning teachers, and administrators completed interviews. Researchers analyzed archival data and made observations. Data were analyzed using in-process worksheets, materials developed based on Bolman and Deal's Four Frames and Peters and Waterman's Characteristics of Effective Organizations. Themes were identified representing variables contributing to the success of these three programs. Of the four frames, human resources had the most variables with strong response in the data. The variable which received the strongest response in the in-process worksheets was the item regarding the personal/professional support provided through these programs. Peer support and confidence building also received very strong responses. (Contains 45 references.) (SM)

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THE IMPORTANCE OF SUPPORT THROUGH INDUCTION PROGRAMMING IN THE TEACHER SOCIALIZATION PROCESS

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The literature nearly unequivocally expresses a need for induction programs. "Neophytes need induction" (Edelfelt, 1985. p. 64). Others mirror this sentiment (Bush, 1987; Huling-Austin, 1986; Soltis, 1985; Thies-Sprinthall, 1986; Wise & Darling-Hammond, 1988). Darling-Hammond, (1987) states that the current system is "...encouraging learned incompetence through unsupervised sink-or-swim induction" (p. 357). Veenman (1984) speaks of "reality shock" in that teachers are confronted with a rude reality quite different from what they expect after their teacher training. Lortie (1966) calls existing induction practice the "Robinson Crusoe Model."

The rationale for the establishment of new teacher induction programs is grounded in the needs of beginning teachers. The impact, however, of moving teaching to a more professional level, has the potential of wide-ranging improvement in the educational venue. Most true professions have a systematic induction process, or at the very least, a manner in which neophytes receive graduated responsibilities over a period of time. The "egg-carton" organization of schools stifles this. Novice teachers are burdened with a dual role: "teaching and learning to

teach" (Wildman, Niles, Magliaro, & McLaughlin 1989, p. 471). Wildman et. al. emphasize that generally only one of these tasks -- teaching -- has been officially recognized.

The impact of the first year of teaching is also an important consideration in establishing the rationale for new teacher induction programs. The process of beginning to teach is ". . . perilous and fraught with risks . . . a time of entering an unknown territory . . . a major life change. It is not surprising that its onset arouses anxiety and fear" (McDonald & Elias, 1983, p. 1). The problems of the beginning teacher are well-documented (Hawk, 1984; Huling-Austin, 1986; Lortie, 1975; Odell, 1986; Ryan, 1970; Veenman, 1984; and others). Veenman's synthesis of the research on new teachers' needs has been a major contribution to the rationale for new teacher assistance. His list by level of concern --in order of importance -- includes: 1) classroom discipline, 2) motivating students, 3) dealing with individual differences, 4 and 5) assessing students' work and relations with parents 6 and 7) insufficient materials and supplies and organization of class work, 8) dealing with problems of individual students 9) work load, and 10) relations with colleagues. New teachers experience "the collapse of the missionary ideals formed during teacher training by the harsh reality of every day classroom life" (Veenman, 1984, p. 143). Weinstein (1988) conducted a study of

preservice teachers' expectations about the first year of teaching and compared it to Veenman's rank order of concerns. The preservice teachers underestimated many of the difficulties which the average first year teacher encounters. These unrealistic expections exacerbate the reality shock felt by most new teachers.

This current study explores the importance of the support component in induction programming to assist beginning teachers in the move through the stages of the socialization process. With more than twenty-five states now mandating induction and a good number of others in the planning stages, it is important to explore dimensions of critical issues regarding the development of excellent programming. This research highlights the importance of the support component in induction programming to assist beginning teachers as they move through the socialization stages of becoming a teacher.

Thies-Sprinthall and Gerler (1990), in advancing the idea of support groups for new teachers, argue that based on theories of group process from social psychology and small group counseling theory, new teachers are prime candidates for support. They are in unfamiliar, demanding territory as they begin their teaching careers, and the research clearly shows that some form of extended preparation is sorely needed to effectively induct them into the profession.

The most critical issue, of course, is the impact induction programs have on the educational program and the instruction children receive. "Each child will have only one first grade experience, or only one algebra class. If the teacher is disorganized, fearful or exhausted, the child is the loser" (Roper, Hitz, & Brim, 1985, p. 3). In addition, patterns can be established based on the chaos of the frustrating beginning teaching experience. ". . .Unless teacher educators can mediate the experience teachers have in the first one or two years of teaching, much of what is taught in preservice courses will be seen by teachers as irrelevant" (Evertson, Hawley & Zlotnik, 1985, p. 8). The emphasis may shift to control rather than positive instructional facilitation.

Teachers view the first year as the most difficult experience of their professional career. It is being largely accepted that preservice education is not sufficient to prepare new teachers for the demands that they encounter. This deficiency has a tremendous impact on 1) the ways teachers perform and learn their jobs, and 2) the learning environment and learner outcomes, often beyond that first difficult year.

Teacher Socialization

"Socialization is the process of change by which the individual acquires the values, attitudes, interests, skills, and knowledge of the

membership group" (Merton, 1957). Merton discusses three stages in the socialization process: Stage 1 - Anticipation of experiences; expectation. Stage 2 - Test against reality; reality shock. Stage 3 - Membership in the organization. Three stage models of socialization are common in the literature. The general stages of socialization are often linked to educational development, as many theorists have broken down educational developmental stages into three phases:

Stages in Socialization Theory in Both General Socialization and as Relates to Teacher Training and Teaching

THEORIST	Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3
Merton (1957)	Anticipation of Experience - Expectation	Test Against Reality "Reality Shock"	Membership in the organization
Burden (1982)	Survival State Year 1	Adjustment Stage Years 2-4	Mature Stage Years 5-
Fuller (1969)	Concerns about "self"	Concerns about "task"	Concerns about "impact"
Deal & Chatman (1989)	Anticipatory Stage	Encounter Stage	Change Acquisition Stage
Nemser (1983)	Beginning Stage of Survival	Consolidation Stage	Mastery Stage

Howey, Mathes, and Zimpher (1985) present three perspectives on the development of beginning teachers which they attribute to Veenman (1984) and Evertson, et al. (1984): 1) Developmental Stages of Concern: (Fuller, 1969; Fuller & Brown, 1975). The focus moves from survival to improved teaching strategies to focus on learner outcomes. 2) Cognitive Development Framework: (Sprinthall & Thies-Sprinthall, 1983). This work emphasizes the teacher as adult learner with a hierarchy from less to more complex cognitive abilities. 3) Teacher Socialization Framework: (Zeichner, 1979; Zeichner & Grant, 1981; Zeichner & Tabachnick, 1982).

The work on the socialization of beginning teachers emphasizes the importance of the transitional phase. Becoming a teacher is a process with an emphasis on differing needs at various stages. Odell (1986, 1988), in her research in New Mexico, found that beginning teachers in a formal induction program identified significant needs in a different hierarchy than Veenman's (1984) synthesis. Their concerns were less on the "self," and more focused on instructional issues. This work suggests the impact on the instructional process when induction fosters the positive socialization of beginning teachers.

Induction in Other Professions

In dealing with the theoretical issue of career socialization, the schism between professional socialization and bureaucratic socialization in education merits exploration. Becker (1961), in his classic study, Boys in White, discusses professional socialization:

> In our society, among the most desired and admired statuses is to be a member of a profession. Such status is attained not by going into the woods for intense, but brief, ordeals of initiation into adult mysteries, but by a long course of professional instruction and supervised practice. In training for medicine, great emphasis is laid upon the learning of basic sciences and their application in the diagnosis and treatment of the sick. But science and skill do not make a physician; one must also be initiated into the status of a physician; to be accepted, one must have learned to play the part of a physician in the drama of medicine. (p. 4)

This view of career socialization in which new members are professionally socialized in the values and culture of the profession is in contrast with bureaucratic socialization, as Hoy and Miskel (1987) explain: "Bureaucracies systematically mold the behavior of personnel to make individual beliefs and values correspond with those of the organization" (p. 76). This ties in with the struggle for moving teaching from an occupation to a profession and relates to how inductees are socialized.

Smith and Street (1980) have compared educational professional preparation with preparation in other fields. They found that during the

last fifty years, the preparation times in most professions and semi-professions (not including education) have been extended. They detail the advances made toward professionalization in the fields of law, pharmacy, and engineering. In each case, conscious efforts were made to improve and extend training. Becker (1961), in describing medicine's history of expansion of training and the concomitant rise in status, notes that ". . . such occupations new or old, have in recent decades sought to increase the length of time required for educating and training those young people who aspire to them. Medicine took the lead in this" (p. 6). It is timely when considering the extension of training of teaching through induction to examine models employed in other professions.

Darling-Hammond, Gendler, and Wise (1990) have studied the training process in other professions extensively for their volume for Rand's Center for the Study of the Teaching Profession, The Teaching Internship. They have found that "in the 20th century, most of the professions have evolved a tripartite system of induction, consisting of (sequentially) education, experience, and examination" (p. 15).

They explain in detail the induction process of engineers, psychologists, architects, and doctors. Some common features include:

-Intern has a special title.
-Takes place full time in a clinical setting.
-Progressive degrees of responsibility.
-Regular guidance and supervision from practicing professionals as well as professional educators.
-Opportunity to observe professionals interacting with clients.
-Didactic training accompanies clinical exprience.
-Intern exposed to broad aspects of the field, not simply areas of personal interest.
-Receives periodic formal evaluations.
-Training goals for the intern outrank service goals.
-Intern is paid, but less than a full professional salary. (p. 18)

These common features illustrate that the internship phase of these professions is a transitional one. Another idea which advances the extended preparation and internships is the concept of professional development schools. Induction thus may be a precursor to more formal extended training.

Induction Programs

The proliferation of induction programs has been one outcome of the reform movement of the 1980's. The types vary. They include state-mandated programs, college/university programs, district, and regional education programs. Often there is a collaborative set-up, with two or more levels interacting. A recent development is the involvement of professional organizations (Ishler & Kester, 1987). Induction programs may serve both beginning teachers and experienced teachers new to a district. Internships can also be defined as a type of induction program. As previously discussed, they are being explored as an extension of

teacher training (Darling-Hammond, et al.,1990). Generally, however, internships are programs designed to satisfy alternative teacher certification. For this reason, they may be more focused on training than transition (Huling-Austin, 1990). The transition process can be defined as one to three years, but induction programs are usually one year in length.

Program Goals

A review of the literature reveals that there are four main goals of induction programs for new teachers: 1) to improve retention rates, 2) to provide assistance to new teachers, 3) to improve performance, and 4) to enhance the professional level of teaching.

Retention

Retention of outstanding teachers is one of the basic goals of induction programs (Huling-Austin, 1990). The proliferation of induction programs in the last decade is closely tied to the attraction and retention issue. The tremendous difficulties beginning teachers experience during the initial year of teaching is the main cause of the high attrition rate. One of the main difficulties is isolation, and a major goal of induction programs is to reduce such isolation (Hegler & Dudley, 1987) and provide a

vehicle to integrate with colleagues (Seifert, 1986).

Provide Assistance

In their policy recommendations, The Induction Commission for the Association of Teacher Educators states that "Induction programs are necessary in every school district to assist beginning teachers in making the transition from novice to experienced professional" (Ishler, 1988, p. v.). The Commission also clearly states that assistance and evaluation should not be performed by the support personnel providing assistance. The assistance/assessment issue is handled in wide-ranging fashion in the varied programs across the country. Another assistance goal is "to transmit the culture of the system to beginning teachers" (Huling-Austin, 1990). In addition to helping the newcomer to understand the nuances of life in the school environment, this involves providing assistance to aid in becoming familiar with a school district's materials, resources, and community (Hegler & Dudley, 1987).

Improve Performance

Another major goal of induction programs is to improve teaching performance (Hegler & Dudley, 1987; Huling-Austin, 1990). By providing new teachers with formal assistance and role models in the form of mentor teachers, it is anticipated that inductees will become better teachers sooner. The Maryland State Department of Education (1987) has

outlined, as one of its induction goals, that such programs will help new teachers to move more quickly through the predictable Stages of Concern based on the work of Fuller, et al. (1969, 1975).

As Odell's (1986, 1988) work indicates, formal induction programs help to move teachers along the socialization process, so that they focus on instructional issues earlier. This supports her claim that ". . . the most important goal is to foster developmental changes that will produce teaching expertise" (Odell, Loughlin, & Ferraro, 1987, p. 2).

Research Design

This study is a dimension of a larger comparative analysis of three exemplary induction programs. A two-stage sampling process was used to determine site selection. First, letters were sent to leading induction researchers requesting recommendations. The literature was also scanned to identify award winning programs. From this work, nine districts moved into the next stage of the site sampling process. Second, program coordinators of all nine districts were interviewed regarding the following topics: 1) Program Organization and Demographic Information, 2) Program Components, and 3) Program Excellence Criteria. Based on

these interviews, three university/district collaborative programs were selected: the University of New Mexico, Albuquerque; the University of Northern Colorado, Greeley; and North Carolina State University, Raleigh.

Three-day visits were made to each of the sites. A Multi-Site Visit Protocol (Appendix A) was followed, including a variety of data gathering modes to strengthen the triangulation process of the study. Mentors, beginning teachers, and district administrators were interviewed, and others completed questionnaires. Archival/historical data were analyzed and the researcher took field notes while in the role of non-participant observer. A great deal of time was spent with each of the three program coordinators and the researcher was able to attend a program session at each of the sites as well.

Data were analyzed using In-Process Worksheets, materials which had been developed based on the work of Bolman and Deal's Four Frames and Peters and Waterman's Characteristics of Effective Organizations (Appendix B). Each piece of data was analyzed and tabulated. Themes were identified. These patterns represent variables contributing to the success of these three outstanding university/multi-district collaborative programs.

Data Analysis

The larger study looked at the culture of these three exemplary programs, looking for variables contributing to program success through analysis of the structural, political, symbolic and human resource frames (Bolman and Deal (1984).

Of the four frames, the Human Resource had the most variables with strong response in the data. The items which were particularly strong were Leadership People/Task Centered, Feedback Process, Reflective Practice, Teacher Professionalization, Job Enlargement, Close to the Customer, Personal/Professional Support, Confidence Building, and Peer Support Component. The strong response in this frame highlights the importance of the support component in induction programming - the support component is critical for advancing begining teachers from stage one, the "survival" stage in the socialization process to stage two where there are more concerns about "task." In this analysis of socialization of beginning teachers, we will examine the resource frame items that tie in directly with this paper.

Personal and Professional Support

The variable which received the strongest response of the 102 items in the In-Process Worksheets was this item regarding the

personal/professional support provided through these programs. Ninety-eight percent of inductees emphasized this point in some fashion. The support component is central to beginning teacher induction and is one of the reasons the Human Resource Frame is highlighted in this analysis.

Peer Support Component. Another indicator of the importance of the human dimension in these programs is the strong response to the item regarding the Peer Support component. There were 111 references to this item. At every level of the programs, participants had the opportunity to garner support from interacting with peers. Required coursework provided this opportunity at all three sites - for inductees at the University of New Mexico and the University of Northern Colorado, and for mentors at North Carolina State. At Colorado, mentors had the option of a free course of mentor training and field consultants had regular work sessions together. In New Mexico, mentors had weekly formal sessions, and many of them weekly informal sessions. In North Carolina, many districts in the Mentor Network provided inductee support sessions. Dr. Reiman and Dr. Thies-Sprinthall, the coordinators of the network, noted that they were working to implement inductee support sessions throughout the Network.

Confidence Building. The final item that received a very strong response in the Human Resource Frame was Self Esteem/Confidence Building. This is in line with Fuller's (1969) Stages of Concern. At the first stage of the teacher socialization process, beginning teachers are focused on survival skills, with focus on "self." It is therefore part of the mentoring process to build confidence in proteges, assisting the beginning teachers in moving on to focus on "task" and "students' needs." The data indicate that these excellent programs facilitate the process of enhancing self-esteem and building beginning teachers' confidence.

Since induction programming is grounded in providing support for beginning teachers, it makes sense that the Human Resource Frame should be highlightred in this study. Beginning teachers are getting personal and professional support at a very emotionally trying time. The human dimension is an integral part of this process.

Conclusion

The proliferation of induction programs in a time of economic difficulty reinforces the fact that there is a need for such programming. Though the formal study of induction "is a relatively new field" (Kestner,

1994), the results suggest that programs do foster higher rates of retention. In addition, programs have been described as promoting a higher degree of professionalization, increased collegiality, enhanced university/school collaboration, instructional leadership on the part of the principal, and improved instruction. Schlechty (1985) points out that the perceived need for tight supervision of experienced teachers is an indication that the induction process did not function well for those educators. He also states that part of the difficulty is that schools have yet "to embrace teacher education as a goal, just as they now embrace the education of children as a goal" (p. 41). In collaboration with the training institutions, the educational continuum of teachers can more adequately flow in the sequence from preservice - induction - inservice.

The need has been identified, further work needs to be done in refining optimum programming to meet general goals as well as site specific and individual needs. What happens during that first year not only has significant impact on the career of teachers, but children as well.

> Teacher educators have brought the candidate to the point where he can enter the classroom with some competence, but the profession pretends that he is an accomplished teacher. Thus he receives the same assignment and treatment as veteran teachers. The result is that the first year of teaching is the greatest scandal in American education. It has allowed teacher educators to be the scapegoats for virtually all of the shortcomings in basic education. It has driven

> literally thousands of promising and idealistic young people in disgust from the profession. Worse still, it has soured and embittered a large percentage of the incumbents in the profession. And these young men and women are the future - they will be our schools for the next 20, 30, even 40 years. (Leight, 1975, p. 19)

The wonder of teaching is its human dimension. There are no simplistic answers about what is correct, necessary, exemplary. There is, however, a need for neophytes to begin their careers in a supportive, reflective environment. In an era of "new professionalism," (Hargreaves, 1994) teacher induction programming is a critical element.

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Appendix A

Multi-Site Visit Protocol

This protocol has been developed in order to assure the greatest level of consistency in data collection strategies across sites as possible.

The research methodology in this study will include:

-Extensive review and data reduction of archival/historical data prior to each site visit.

-Establishment of working relationship with program coordinator via mail and phone contact prior to each visit, establishing an interview schedule prior to arrival.

-Visitation of each site for three days. At each site:

-Be given a tour/overview of program/facilities by coordinator.

-Attendance at one formal induction session/meeting, is possible.

-Provide qustionnaires to program administrators for distribution of 20 each to mentors and inductees. It is recommended that ten of the participants from each category be selected by program coordinators. The remaining ten will be randomly selected. Depending on the number of principals involved at each of the three program sites, the coordinator and researcher will determine

an appropriate number of principal questionnaires to be distributed.

-Interviews

-Two mentors and two inductees from the current year's program. one from each category will be recommended by the coordinator and one will be randomly selected.

-Superintendent or district office representative, union representative, board member, principal, state contact, and university representative, as applicable.

-At lease 1/3 of each day will be spent in non-participant observation.

-On going consultation with program coordinator.

Appendix A
Worksheets for Data Analysis

Bolman and Deal
Structural Frame:

1. Formal structure
2. Formal/informal roles
3. Standard operating procedures
4. Program components
5. Decision-making process
6. Change process
7. Program evaluation
8. Mentor selection/training
9. Prepared information
10. Personnel selection
11. Time considerations
12. Retention rates
13. Mentor/inductee match-ups
14. Assistance/assessment
15. Formal evaluation of inductees
16. Program content
17. Collaboration
18. Funding
19. Program flexibility
20. Inductee selection/placement
21. Program Differentiation
22. Structure/environment match
23. Change built into the structure
24. Research-based
25. Course credit
26. Theory to practice
27. Quality control
28. Networking
29. Outcomes/impact
30. Communication
31. Retention
32. Coursework advantage

Political Frame

1. Resources, internal/external
2. Monetary issues/control of rewards
3. Power/responsibility
4. Change
5. Bargaining and compromise
6. Coalitions
7. Interaction/Fit of players
8. Funding
9. Participant selection process
10. Policies
11. Mandates
12. Legal constraints/agreements
13. Change process

Human Resource Frame

1. Leaders, task/people centered
2. Work environment
3. Informal groups
4. Individual needs
5. Attitudes
6. Human relations/pr skills
7. Participant decision-making
8. Human interaction
9. Job enlargement
10. Perception of individuals
11. Mentor training
12. Collegiality
13. Theory X, Theory Y
14. Special considerations/benefits for participants
15. Peer support component
16. Focus on needs
17. Value of coursework
18. Availability of resources
19. Reflective practice
20. Teacher professionalization
21. Organizaed retreats

22. Feedback process
23. Personal and professional support
24. Helped most by . . .
25. Stages of concern/socialization process
26. Self-esteem/confidence building
27. Mentor/inductee relationship

Symbolic Frame

1. People's faith in the program
2. Shared values
3. Process to determine values
4. Myths
5. Rituals
6. Ceremonies
7. Organizational play
8. Humor
9. Trust
10. Beliefs
11. Mission statement
12. Motto/symbols/quotes
13. Goals
14. Quality manifestations
15. Vision
16. Role models/program as model
17. Part of larger management philosophy
18. Viewed as pay-back
19. Win-Win situation
20. Accountability/High expectations
21. Commitment
22. Emphatic answers

Peters and Waterman's Charactersitics of Successful Organizations

1. Bias for action
2. Close to the customer
3. Autonomy and entrepreneurship
4. Productivity through people
5. Hands-on and value driven